

Modelling the forced-air cooling mechanisms and performance of polylined horticultural produce

Justin O'Sullivan¹, Maria J. Ferrua¹, Richard Love¹, Pieter Verboven², Bart Nicolai², and Andrew East¹

¹Massey Institute of Food Science and Technology, Massey University, Private Bag 11-222, Palmerston North 4442, New Zealand, Ph +64 6 350 4336; Fax +64 6 350 5657

²University of Leuven, division BIOSYST-MeBioS, Postharvest group, Willem de Croylaan 42, Heverlee, Belgium

Abstract

A 3-D computational fluid dynamics (CFD) model was developed to describe and predict the temperature profiles of palletised polylined kiwifruit packages undergoing forced-air cooling. The geometrical configuration of the kiwifruit, polyliner and cardboard box were explicitly modelled. The model included the effects of natural convection on the airflow behaviour and heat transfer process occurring within the packed fruits inside the polyliner. The capability of the model to predict the fruit temperatures in each package was quantitatively validated against experimental data. A laboratory scaled experimental rig was used to monitor the forced-air cooling process of a half pallet of kiwifruit boxes under controlled operating conditions. The numerical model was able to predict cooling times within experimental error. Cooling within the pallet was primarily influenced by air temperature and to a lesser extent airflow distribution into each package. A maximum recommend volumetric flowrate through the pallet of $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, far lower than flowrates recommended for the cooling of non-

27 polylined produce, was identified. Successive increases to the flowrate, particularly beyond
28 $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, resulted in increasingly diminished reductions ($< 12 \%$) to cooling rate.

29

30 Within the polyliner there was a low transfer of energy between kiwifruit and
31 kiwifruit/surrounding air. Instead cooling was reliant on the air temperature flowing over the
32 top of the polyliner.

33

34 *Keywords:* CFD; precooling; horticulture; polyliner; packaging; heat transfer

35

36 1. Introduction

37

38 Postharvest cooling is essential to ensure that product quality is maintained from harvest to
39 retail. For kiwifruit, the maximum storage potential is achieved when the fruit are cooled to
40 near $0 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ efficiently, shortly after harvest (Ashby, 1995). Kiwifruit, kept at $0 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and 90 - 95
41 % relative humidity can have a storage period of 3 to 5 months (Simson & Straus, 2010).

42 This affords market flexibility and eliminates the need for kiwifruit produces to market
43 immediately after harvest. However, improper cooling can lead to hot or cold spots, within
44 the package or pallet, and consequently quality loss in horticulture produce during storage
45 (Verboven et al., 2003). The most common industrial practice to efficiently cool the
46 horticultural produce is a forced-air cooling process immediately after harvest. Forced-air
47 cooling involves forcing refrigerated air through packages of fresh produce stacked upon
48 pallets. Of the different air flow systems available the tunnel cooler is the most common
49 (Brosnan & Sun., 2001).

50

51 A variety of factors can affect the cooling times of the produce inside the package. For
52 example, strawberries (a relatively small fruit and packed in individual clamshells within
53 trays) can cool to near 0 °C in as little as 2 h (Ferrua & Singh, 2009c). Conversely, palletized
54 boxes of apples can take up to 12 h to cool (East et al., 2003). Introducing a barrier between
55 the produce and cooling air (as in the case of polylined packaging or fruit wrapped in paper)
56 can extend the cooling period even further. For example, pears stacked in boxes and wrapped
57 in paper can take up to 24 h to cool (Thompson & Chen, 1988).

58

59 The typical flowrate range recommended in industry for the forced-air cooling of non-
60 polylined horticultural produce is 0.5 – 2.0 L kg⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Thompson, 2004). For example, De
61 Castro et al. (2004a) showed that, for the forced-air cooling of non-polylined horticultural
62 produce, increasing the air flowrate from 1 to 2 L kg⁻¹ s⁻¹ reduced the Half Cooling Time,
63 HCT, by 26 %. For an increase in flowrate from 2 to 4 L s⁻¹ kg⁻¹ the reduction in HCT was
64 only 11 %.

65

66 The packaging structure usually consists of a corrugated cardboard package that contains
67 vents or hand holes to facilitate its handling and provide a means of contact between the
68 refrigerated air and the produce. In addition, depending on the product, individual consumer
69 produces (such as kiwifruit, grapes and berryfruit) are also contained within an internal
70 package. In some situations this is used to separate consumer units of produce, in either bags
71 or clamshells (e.g. strawberries are field packed into individual clamshells, Ferrua & Singh,
72 2009a). In other cases, including for kiwifruit and grapes (East et al., 2013) a polyliner bag is
73 used to assist in moisture retention of the fruit during the storage period. Following harvest,
74 kiwifruit are at risk of shrivelling if more than 4 % of the total weight at harvest is lost due to
75 water evaporation (Burdon & Lallu, 2011). This affects both its visual appearance and the

76 selling weight at the end of the supply chain. Kiwifruit are encased within a polyliner to
77 prevent excessive loss of product moisture and maintain product quality.

78

79 The growth of computer power in recent years has led to an increased use of numerical
80 models to predict complicated airflow patterns and cooling profiles of horticultural packages
81 during forced-air cooling (Defraeye et al, 2013, 2014; Dehghannya et al., 2008, 2011, 2012;
82 Delele et al., 2008, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c and Ferrua & Singh et al., 2009a, 2009b, 2009c,
83 2011). The use of numerical modelling facilitates an exact control of different operating
84 conditions, while providing detailed information on the local airflow behaviour and
85 temperature profile within the system. This allows a more fundamental analysis of the design
86 principles and mechanisms underpinning the overall performance of the cooling process.

87

88 The aim of this paper was to develop a numerical model to simulate the forced-air cooling of
89 polylined kiwifruit in cardboard packages in a typical industrial pallet layer arrangement used
90 during forced-air tunnel cooling. The model was then used to identify the airflow distribution
91 and temperatures within the pallet and the maximum recommend flowrate, as well as the
92 cooling performance and mechanisms occurring within both the pallet and the polyliner.

93

94 2. Materials and methods

95

96 2.1 Experimental studies

97

98 2.1.1 Industrial forced-air cooling

99

Hayward kiwifruit (*Actinidia deliciosa*), harvested in Te Puke, New Zealand, are typically packaged in a modular bulk pack (MBP). The MBP consists of a cardboard box with a folding lid at the top, with a 7 cm gap across the middle (Figure 1a). The length, width and depth of the box are 40 cm, 30 cm and 19.5 cm, respectively. Two rectangular vents (hand vents) are located at the top of the front and back face. Hemi-spherical end vents are located at each end face. Inside the box the kiwifruit are contained within a single non-perforated polyliner bag, constructed of high density polyethylene and folded at the top. Each kiwifruit MBP holds approximately 10 kg of kiwifruit, with the exact number of fruit determined by the size grade of the fruit. For this numerical model 100 count 36 kiwifruit, weighing between 93 – 103 g, were contained in each MBP.

A standard ISO industrial pallet (1.2 x 1.0 m) holds 100 MBPs, evenly distributed into 10 layers (Figure 1b). In commercial forced-air cooling operations in New Zealand air is usually pulled through the 1.0 m pallet face (Wilton-Jones, 2012).

2.1.2 Experimental system for validation

A laboratory-scale operation was designed and developed to simulate forced-air cooling of produce stacked a half-pallet high (5 layers, “A” – “E”; Figure 1), while allowing precise control over the temperature and flowrate of the refrigerated air.

For validation purposes a test duct with a solid wooden base, prevented air from being pulled under the pallet (Figure 2). Blocks of insulation were used to fill all the space around the sides of the pallet. This imposed a zero flux condition through the side walls of the pallet. An insulation block was also used to fill the remaining space between the top of the pallet and

the fan system. The top and side walls of the test duct were constructed from transparent plastic polycarbonate sheets. A metal duct, containing a wire-mesh at the entrance and exit, was placed in front of the test duct to promote a uniform distribution of the airflow.

A fan pulled refrigerated air through the pallet in a temperature control room (TCR). A variable speed drive (VSD) was used to fix the flowrate across the pallet. The air flowrate was measured by the pressure drop occurring across an orifice plate located downstream of the palletized structure. For experiments the metal duct containing the wire-mesh, the insulated test duct, the orifice and fan system were all attached together (Figure 2).

2.1.3 Experimental data collection

Within the five pallet layers two layers were measured (layers “B” and “D”; Figure 2). Due to the symmetric layout of the pallet layers MBPs 5 and 8, 6 and 9, and 7 and 10, were considered replicas of each other. Hence, only MBPs 1 – 7 were recorded.

2.1.3.1 Fruit temperature

In the monitored MBP the kiwifruit were uniformly arranged following a cubic centred distribution pattern. This ensured that airflow distribution and subsequent cooling performance could only be associated with the package design and orientation, and not random stacking of the fruit. A cubic centred distribution could also be replicated in the numerical model.

Kiwifruits were separated into four layers within each box. 30 kiwifruit were in the bottom layer, 20 in the second, 30 in the third and 20 in the top. Type-T thermocouples were used to monitor the centre temperatures of 12 kiwifruit within each monitored MBP (Figure 3). Temperatures were logged at one-minute intervals by 64-channel dataloggers (1000 Series Squirrel Meter/Logger, Eltek ltd, Cambridge, UK), over the forced-air cooling periods (approximately 14 h).

2.1.3.2 Air temperature

The air temperature entering the pallet was measured by a thermocouple (1 per vent for the incoming refrigerated airflow into a MBP), giving a total of 4 air measurement points per monitored pallet layer.

2.1.3.3 Experimental conditions

Kiwifruit were stored at 0 °C for approximately 6 weeks following harvest prior to experimentation. Prior to the forced-air cooling experiments the kiwifruit were equilibrated to room temperature (approximately 20 °C), replicating the field heat observed following harvest. The temperature control room was set and maintained at 0 °C, with a relative humidity (RH) of 90 %. On experiment initiation the instrumented pallet was rolled into the room attached to the fan system and the precooling simulation initiated, within 5 minutes of kiwifruit entering the cool environment.

Three different flowrates ($0.34, 0.51, 0.71 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) were tested, ranging from low rates (below those for typical precooling operations of non-polylined horticultural produce) to rates within the range ($0.5 - 2.0 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$; Thompson, 2004).

2.2 Model development

2.2.1 Geometrical configurations

Produce arrangement

Zespri International provided 2D images of count 36 Hayward kiwifruit (Wilton-Jones, 2012). These images gave the dimensions through the centre of the kiwifruit, along the xy-, yz- and xz-axes. The 2D images were converted to Cartesian coordinates and compiled into one representative average 3D geometry of the kiwifruit, in the geometry editor (DesignModeler, 2010).

The kiwifruit arrangement used in the experimental setup was replicated in the numerical model. Single contact points between individual produce, especially non-spherical produce, can create an unstable and distorted mesh, which can negatively impact the solution accuracy and stability. To promote mesh integrity each individual kiwifruit were kept slightly apart ($\sim 2 \text{ mm}$) from each other and the box walls (Figure 3). The bottom layer was the first constructed. 2 mm was found to be the minimum distance that could be used before instabilities began to appear in the numerical simulation. The same distance was maintained between the kiwifruit in the second layer. The arrangement for the bottom and second layer

was repeated for the third and top layers. The 100 kiwifruit had a combined surface area and volume of $103.1 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2$ and $95.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^3$, respectively (Figure 4a).

The kiwifruit bulk was encased in a polyliner. The material in the polyliner was high density polyethylene with a thickness of 10 μm . In essence the polyliner is a plastic barrier which wraps around and moulds onto the shape of the external kiwifruit (Figure 4a).

The polyliner was placed in direct contact with each external kiwifruit by moulding it around the shape of the kiwifruit on the outside of the packed structure, to a depth of 5 mm. A depth $< 5 \text{ mm}$ introduced computational instabilities (non-converging residuals) to the numerical simulation. Any depth $> 5 \text{ mm}$ qualitatively appeared to be unrepresentative of reality. Note also that if the polyliner were positioned away from the fruit to avoid contact points, an unrealistic insulating air layer would be created between the polyliner and the fruit, reducing drastically the heat transfer rates across the polyliner. For the implemented case with contact between the polyliner and fruit, a sensitivity analysis (data not included) showed that if the amount of surface area contact increased by 40 % the cooling profiles would change slightly, by initially experiencing faster cooling, but ultimately retain very similar cooling times. The extremely narrow thickness of the polyliner (10 μm) was expected to only provide a physical barrier to airflow but not a thermal barrier to heat transfer. Hence, the polyliner thickness was not included in the numerical model. To reduce the complexity of the mesh the irregular shape of the polyliner was simplified (Figure 4a).

Modular bulk pack

The cardboard box was constructed with the same dimensions as the physical construct. Some simplification was made to the box, reducing the complex geometry. The hemispherical end vents were replaced with rectangular vents that had the same effective area. The area directly above the end vents created by the gap between the cardboard lids was included in the effective area of the rectangular end vents (Figure 4b).

When kiwifruit MBPs are stacked in a pallet the refrigerated air that enters through the vents cools not only the kiwifruit in the MBP but also the kiwifruit in MBP directly above, through conduction across the base of the cardboard box (O'Sullivan et al., 2012; 2013). To simulate this phenomenon a periodic boundary condition to link heat transfer from the top of the box to the bottom of the box was required. However, the CFD solver software used (Fluent) cannot simulate a periodic boundary condition between a fluid (air in the gap between the cardboard lid) and a solid (cardboard base). Hence, the two individual cardboard lids were modelled as one lid with the same dimensions as the base of the cardboard box (Figure 4b). The top and bottom of the MBP, both modelled as a continuous solid (cardboard), were linked by the periodic boundary condition in the numerical set-up. The MBP was assembled with the kiwifruit, polyliner and cardboard box (Figure 4b).

Pallet footprint

The single MBP was multiplied to create a pallet layer. The MBPs were assumed to fit perfectly together with no space between individual packages. Refrigerated air was pulled through the 1.0 m pallet face. To prevent the inlet and outlet boundary conditions from influencing the airflow distribution entering the MBPs, the inlet boundary was located 100 cm upstream of the MBP and the outlet boundary 150 cm downstream of the MBP.

2.2.2 Governing equations

Transport phenomenon during forced-air cooling

Heat transfer due to conduction and convection were included in the numerical model. For Grashof numbers < 1700 the fluid motions generated by natural convection can be considered negligible (Holdman, 2010). Taking the characteristic dimension as the height of the polyliner (~ 18.3 cm) and a temperature difference of 20°C (between the refrigerated air and kiwifruit at the start of precooling) the Grashof number was calculated at 2.1×10^7 , necessitating the inclusion of natural convection in the numerical model.

Typically, in the forced-air cooling of horticultural produce the influence of radiation is expected to be small compared to the convective heat transfer (Defraeye et al., 2013). During forced-air cooling the heat of respiration is unlikely to have a significant impact on the cooling rate of horticultural produce (Gowda et al., 1997), largely because the forced-air process occurs over a short time period. Additionally, at 10°C , halfway between initial kiwifruit temperature and temperature of the refrigerated air, that heat of respiration for kiwifruit is relatively low, at 0.37 W (Crisosto et al., 2013). The heat to be removed to cool a single MBP from 20°C to 0°C can be calculated from $mC_p\Delta T$. The mass per MBP is 10.5 kg, the specific heat capacity of kiwifruit is $3713 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ (Table 1) and the temperature difference is 20°C . Therefore, the amount of heat to be removed is 780 kJ. Provided the forced-air cooling process does not exceed 29 h to cool a MBP, an unlikely occurrence, then the contribution of the heat of respiration will be $< 5\%$ and can be neglected. Heat transfer

due to moisture loss was experimentally determined to have a negligible impact on the cooling process (data not included).

Transport equations in the numerical model

The momentum transport equations were calculated using the Reynolds-averaged Navier-Stokes equations, described in Versteeg and Malalasekera (1995). The κ - ϵ turbulence model, with the Enhanced Wall Treatment function enabled, accounted for turbulence in the turbulence regions. Activating gravity, employing the Boussinesq model and defining the volume within the polyliner as a laminar zone in Fluent simulated the effect of natural convection in the polyliner.

Energy transport for fluids

The energy conservation equation was,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho E) + \nabla \cdot (\vec{v}(\rho E + p)) = \nabla \cdot (k_{eff} \nabla T) \quad (1)$$

where E (J kg⁻¹) is the total energy per unit mass, ρ (kg m⁻³) is the density, p (Pa) is the pressure, v (m s⁻¹) is the velocity, T (°C) is the temperature, t (s) is the time, k_{eff} (W m⁻¹ K⁻¹) is the effective thermal conductivity, defined as,

$$k_{eff} = k + k_t \quad (2)$$

where k_t (W m⁻¹ K⁻¹) is the turbulent thermal conductivity.

294

295 The energy, E , is related to the enthalpy by,

296

297
$$E = h - \frac{p}{\rho} + \frac{v^2}{2} \quad (3)$$

298

299 h (J kg^{-1}) is the sensible enthalpy,

300

301
$$h = \int_{T_{ref}}^T C_p dT \quad (4)$$

302

303 where C_p ($\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$) is the heat capacity.

304

305 *Energy transport for solids*

306

307 The energy conservation equation in the solid regions (kiwifruit and cardboard) of the

308 numerical model reduced to,

309

310
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho h) = \nabla \cdot (k \nabla T) \quad (5)$$

311

312 2.2.3 Numerical setup

313

314 *Thermophysical properties*

315

The thermophysical properties of the air and solid materials are defined in Table 1. For temperatures between 0 °C (cooling air temperature) and 20 °C (fruit temperature at the start of forced-air cooling) the thermal properties of air are negligibly affected by temperature and RH (Tsilingiris, 2008). Hence, properties for dry air at 0 °C, found in Holdman (2010), were used for the air. Natural convection was enabled for air inside the polyliner and the air assigned an expansion coefficient.

The specific heat capacity and thermal conductivity for horticultural produce can be estimated from correlations based on the water content of the produce. The properties for kiwifruit were calculated from the average of series of relevant correlations, found in Sweat (1994). For Hayward kiwifruit harvested in New Zealand the water content (83 %) was calculated from the average of a range of values reported (Macrae et al., 1989; McClone et al., 1998; Mowat and Maguire et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2011) and density from values found in Jordan et al. (2000) and Jordan and Seelye (2009). The thermal properties of corrugated cardboard used in horticultural produce packaging can be found in Tanner (1998; Table 1).

Boundary conditions

The kiwifruit, polyliner and cardboard surfaces were modelled as no-slip walls with zero roughness. A heat flux of zero was prescribed for side walls of the pallet layer. A periodic boundary condition was enabled between the top and bottom of the MBPs. The temperatures within the computational domain were initially set to the ambient temperature in the laboratory (18.9 – 20.1 °C) where the kiwifruit were equilibrated at prior to validation experiments.

Operating conditions

The inlet of the computational domain was defined as a pressure inlet and set to the ambient atmospheric pressure (i.e. the condition in the temperature control room). The outlet of the computational domain was defined as a pressure outlet with an underpressure imposed, to represent the underpressure created by a fan in a forced-air tunnel cooler device. The underpressure was varied to generate the desired flowrate.

For model validation pressure drops of 200, 420 and 850 Pa generated the experimental flowrates of $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, 0.51 and $0.71 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively. To identify an operating condition to recommend pressure drops were doubled from 25 Pa to 800 Pa (i.e. 25, 50, 100, 200, 400 and 800 Pa).

The inlet of the computational domain was set to the temperature of the refrigerated room ($\sim 0^\circ\text{C}$, depending on the specific experimental conditions), while at the outlet a zero gradient of the heat flow was implemented. Low turbulence intensity (1 %) was assumed at the pressure inlet, due to the presence of a screen duct with wire-meshes at the system inlet.

Numerical simulation

The numerical simulations were performed with the ANSYS Fluent 15 software package (Fluent, 2010). The SIMPLE algorithm was used for pressure-velocity coupling. Second order spatial discretization schemes were used throughout.

Computational mesh

366

367 The computational mesh was generated with tetrahedral elements using the ANSYS mesh
368 generation software (Meshing, 2010). The maximum size on any individual face was limited
369 to 7.5 mm. The growth rate or expansion ratio between cells was kept at 1.2, below the
370 maximum of 1.3 recommended in Franke et al. (2007). The total number of elements was 7.4×10^6 .
371 Richardson extrapolation (Roache, 1997; Franke et al., 2007) was used to estimate the
372 spatial discretization error from the difference in average pallet temperature at the half-
373 cooling time (HCT) with increases to mesh size of 30 %. An error of 1.1 % for a mesh size of
374 7.4×10^6 elements was considered sufficiently low.

375

376 Iterative convergence

377

378 To reduce the total computational time the flow field was initialized by solving the
379 momentum equations at steady-state and independent of temperature. The transient
380 simulation was run, with the energy and momentum equations coupled together to account
381 for the effect of natural convection. The exclusion of natural convection, and the subsequent
382 velocity field, caused the numerical model to predict HCTs up to 21.9 % slower than when
383 natural convection was simulated, necessitating the inclusion of natural convection (data not
384 shown). The transient simulation was run at a time step of 60 s, with a maximum of 20
385 iterations per time step. A temporal analysis on the time step size was performed, with
386 Richardson extrapolation (Roache, 1997) for the average pallet temperature at HCT. Relative
387 errors were 0.3 %, 1.0 % and 3.1 % for time steps of 15 s, 30 s and 60 s, respectively (data
388 not shown). A time step of 30 s extended the simulation time more than two fold, making 60
389 s an acceptable compromise between solution accuracy and computation time. The flow and
390 turbulence equations were calculated along with the energy equation during transient

simulation. The simulations (for 14 h) took approximately 24 h, on an i5-4570 Intel Core processor (3.2 GHz) with 8 GB RAM memory.

2.3 Data Analysis – model validation

Numerical model validation consisted of comparing numerical and experimental half-cooling times (HCT) and seven-eighths cooling times (SECT) for individual MBPs within a pallet layer.

To calculate the cooling times the kiwifruit temperatures were first converted to the fractional unaccomplished temperature change (FUTC), Y . Y represents the amount of possible temperature change that has yet to be accomplished (Eq. 6) and is a common method used to normalise cooling data (Brosnan and Sun, 2001).

$$Y = \frac{T - T_a}{T_i - T_a} \quad (6)$$

where T (°C) is the temperature of kiwifruit in MBP at the specified time of cooling, T_i (°C) is the initial temperature of individual kiwifruit in the MBP at the start of cooling, and T_a (°C) is the average temperature of the air. T_a (°C) is a single value, taken as the average temperature of the air entering the pallet over the cooling process. When calculating the averaging Y during experiments in a MBP Y was first calculated for each kiwifruit and then averaged over the number of kiwifruit recorded per MBP. The HCT is defined as the time at where Y equals 0.5, when the kiwifruit has cooled halfway from their initial temperature to that of the cooling air. The SECT is when $Y = 0.125$.

3. Results

3.1 Cooling mechanisms and performance

3.1.1 Cooling within the pallet layer

The airflow distribution within each MBP caused relatively high air velocities immediately behind the inlet vents of each MBP that quickly dissipated within the MBPs (Figure 5a).

MBPs 1 and 5, located at the front of the pallet and directly exposed to the incoming refrigerated air, had the shortest HCTs (Table 2). Over half the airflow entering the front of the pallet flowed into MBP 1, located in the centre (Figure 5b). The remaining 44.0 % was split evenly between MBPs 5 and 8, located at the side of the pallet. The airflow was pulled from the front to the back of the pallet with only a small exchange of airflow ($< 3.2\%$) between MBPs located along the centre and side of the pallet.

The rise in temperature of the cooling air as it was pulled through the pallet (Figure 6) resulted in slower cooling rates for the MBPs at the back of the pallet (MBPs 3, 4, 6 and 7), where the airflow distributed a higher percent through the centre of the pallet, causing lower air temperatures and faster cooling in the corresponding MBPs (i.e. the HCT of MBP 3 $<$ MBP 6 and the HCT of MBP 4 $<$ MBP 7, despite their longer distances from the front of the pallet; Table 2).

Differences in the HCT of individual MBPs result from changes to the air flowrate and/or the temperature difference between the cooling air and the polyliner. Reductions in HCT of

MBPs 1 and 5 are largely associated with an increase in air flowrate as the air temperature entering the MBPs was effectively constant, due to the MBP location at the front of the pallet (Figure 6). The HCT for MBPs 1 and 5 were at an effective maximum ($< 12\%$ reduction in HCT for each successive pressure drop increase; Table 2). This suggests that the comparatively larger reductions in HCT for MBPs 3, 4, 6 and 7 were largely associated with a lower increment of air temperature along the pallet (Figure 6) rather than increases to air flowrate.

The efficiency of the forced-air cooling process is determined by the rate and uniformity of product cooling in comparison to the energy input required (de Castro et al., 2004a, 2004b). The power requirement, W (W), is a product of the flowrate and pressure drop. Successive increases to the pressure drop after 200 Pa ($0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) result in relative reductions to the average pallet layer HCT $< 12\%$ (Table 2). The extra power requirements, coupled with the diminishing reduction in improvement to HCT, make substantial increases of pressure drop an inefficient method of improving the forced air cooling process of polylined horticultural produce. Hence, pressure drops beyond 200 Pa ($0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) are not recommended for use in industry, particularly when the associated operating costs to run the fan to generate the pressure drops are taken into consideration.

3.1.2 Cooling profiles within MBPs

Temperature distribution images were generated at a flowrate of $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (200 Pa), from an initial temperature of 20°C , after 4.28 h of forced-air cooling, the average pallet layer HCT (Figure 7).

The airflow through the pallet brought refrigerated air into contact with the polyliner. The kiwifruit in contact with the polyliner (i.e. kiwifruit at the top and sides of the fruit bulk) had relatively low surface temperatures (Figure 7). The periodic boundary condition, simulating the heat transfer pathway provided by refrigerated airflow entering pallet layer stacked directly below, caused relatively rapid cooling in the bottom kiwifruit layer, similar to the cooling in the top layer. With only the heat transfer mechanisms of natural convection and effective conduction with the adjoining kiwifruit present, kiwifruit in the centre of the MBP cooled relatively slowly. This created large temperature gradients between the centre and edge kiwifruit, within each MBP.

The kiwifruit in the centre of the bulk, with no contact with the refrigerated airflow limited the impact of increasing the flowrate through the pallet. For polylined produce the polyliner prevented direct contact between the refrigerated air and the produce. The polyliner, which moulded to the shape of the external fruit bulk, created a much smaller surface area for the air to contact than the potential surface area if the refrigerated air flowed between and around each individual product. With a lower surface area for contact between refrigerated air and produce (or polyliner in this case) a lower volumetric flowrate ($0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), than typically recommended for non-polylined produce ($0.5 - 2.0 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$; Thompson, 2004), was required to reach the recommend maximum flowrate, beyond which relatively small improvements to cooling time for drastically increasing power requirements were observed.

3.2 Experimental validation

Validation of the numerical model was achieved by examining the computed and experimental cooling profiles (Figure 8) and HCT and SECT for each MBP at each of the

tested flowrates (Figure 9). The experimental uncertainty (standard error) was calculated per MBP. The experimental average temperature was calculated by averaging the 12 data points recorded in each MBP. The standard error was calculated from 24 data points (12 per MBP in each of the two monitored layers) for MBP 1 – 4 and from 48 data points for MBP 5 – 7.

3.2.1 Comparison of the computed and experimental temperature profiles

Separating the pallet layer into MBPs 1 – 4 (through the centre of the pallet layer) and MBPs 5 – 7 (along the side of the pallet layer), with error bars only presented for MBPs 1, 4, 5 and 7, allowed for a more detailed comparison of the individual MBP temperature profiles (Figure 8).

The predicted temperature profiles fell within the standard error bars of the experimental data (Figure 8). While the predicted temperatures remained within the error bars for the duration of the simulation they tended to over predict the temperate drop at the start of cooling (0 – 4 h) and under predict the kiwifruit temperatures at end of the cooling operation (12 – 14 h). Overall, the location of the predicted temperature profiles, within the error bars of the experimental data, showed the goodness of fit of the CFD model.

With the exception of the SECT for MBP 6 and 7 at a flowrate of $0.51 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ the HCT and SECT predicted by the numerical model fall within the error bars of the experiments for each of the tested flowrates (Figure 9).

While minor, the discrepancies observed between experimental and predicted data could be the result of a wide range of factors. The slight over prediction of cooling (i.e. kiwifruit

temperatures were predicted lower than experimental values) at the start of the simulations (Figures 8 and 9) can most likely be explained by the exact thermocouple location. During experiments the thermocouples were placed as close to the centre of the kiwifruit as possible (i.e. the slowest cooling point within the fruit). However, the numerical model monitors the average temperature of the entire kiwifruit volume (including those lower temperatures that immediately start developing close to the fruit surface).

In experiments the wires may have caused some blockage of the vents in the MBPs. A blockage would have a greater impact on MBPs 5 – 7 due to the smaller vent area orientated perpendicular to the incoming refrigerated airflow (13 cm^2 compared to 44 cm^2 for MBPs 1 – 4).

Other factors include the complexity of the transport phenomenon modelled, uncertainties in material properties (i.e. specific heat capacity and thermal conductivity of the kiwifruit) and differences in the shape and size of the fruit and the influence of the intrusive temperature measurement technique on the flow field. However, only small differences were observed between experimental and numerical values, proving the viability of the developed model, especially when considering the large mass of fruit per MBP ($\sim 10 \text{ kg}$) and long duration (14 h) of the forced-air cooling operations.

4. Conclusions

A numerical model to simulate the forced-air cooling for a single pallet layer containing 10 polylined kiwifruit MBPs has been developed and validated. The polyliner created an enclosed space, consisting of air and the produce where the primary methods of heat transfer

were natural convection and conduction. Hence the effect of natural convection must be simulated when dealing with horticultural produce encased in a polyliner.

Unlike the cooling of produce without a polyliner there was no direct contact between refrigerated airflow and produce. As a result the conductive cooling through the base of the cardboard box, supplied by the airflow pulled through the MBP directly beneath has a greater influence on the overall heat transfer rate and must be included in the numerical model. Hence, a periodic boundary condition linking heat transfer between the top and bottom of the MBPs was included to simulate the cooling effect of the airflow entering MBPs in the pallet layers directly below the simulated layer.

The capability of the numerical model to predict the average fruit temperature per MBP was quantitatively validated. A good agreement was found between the experimental and predicted temperature profiles and the values of HCT and SECT for each MBP. Considering the complexity of the transport phenomena controlling the cooling performance of the process the level of agreement found between experimental and predicted data confirmed the goodness of fit of the developed model.

The numerical model can be used to predict the transport phenomenon within the individual MBPs during forced-air cooling applications and provide insight into the heat transfer mechanisms occurring within the polyliner. With no forced-convective cooling mechanisms within the polyliner fruit in the centre of the MBP cool relatively slowly compared to fruit in direct contact with the polyliner or cardboard base.

Cooling of individual MBPs was influenced by air flowrate, distance from incoming refrigerated airflow, airflow distribution into each MBP, package orientation and air temperature into each MBP. The reduced impact of air flowrate, compared to the forced-air cooling of non-polylined horticultural produce, results in a relatively low maximum recommend flowrate, above which the impact of increasing the flowrate has a diminished impact on the cooling rate of the polylined produce.

The numerical model can now be used to assess a variety of operating conditions and evaluate the results in terms of cooling rate, uniformity, energy cost and pallet throughput per week. The results of these numerical studies can be used to determine an optimal operating point that can promote relatively rapid cooling of the produce, without incurring excessive operational costs.

Additionally, alternative packages can be designed and their impact on cooling performance numerically assessed. Alternative packages can focus on improving cooling uniformity or pallet throughput per week, depending on the requirements of the industrial operator.

Acknowledgements

This paper is an output of the PhD research of Justin O'Sullivan as supported by a ZespriTM International PhD scholarship and the Ministry of Business, Employment and Innovation funded Fibreboard Packaging Design research project (MAUX 1302).

590

591

References

Ashby, B.H. (1995). Protecting perishable foods during transport by truck. *Handbook no. 669*. USDA. Washington, D.C.

ASHRAE. (1993). *ASHRAE handbook: Fundamentals*. Atlanta, GA: American Society of Heating, Refrigeration and Air-Conditioning Engineers.

Brosnan, T., & Sun, D-W. (2001). Precooling techniques and applications for horticultural products – a review. *International Journal of Refrigeration*, 24(2), 154-170.
doi:10.1016/S0140-7007(00)00017-7

Burdon, J., & Lallu, N. (2011). Kiwifruit (*Actinidia* spp.). In: E.M. Yahia (Ed.), *Postharvest biology and technology of tropical and subtropical fruits. Volume 3: coconut to mango* (pp. 326-360). Woodhead Publishing Limited, Cambridge, UK.

Crisosto, C.H., Mitcham, E.J., & Kader, A.A. (2013). *Kiwifruit: recommendations for maintaining postharvest quality*. Retrieved from <http://postharvest.ucdavis.edu/PFfruits/Kiwifruit/>

de Castro, L.R., Vigneault, C., & Cortez, L.A.B. (2004a). Effect of container opening area on air distribution during precooling of horticultural produce. *Transactions of ASAE*, 47(6), 2033–2038.
doi:10.13031/2013.17792

de Castro, L.R., Vigneault, C., & Cortez, L.A.B. (2004b). Container opening design for horticultural produce cooling efficiency. *Food, Agriculture and Environment*, 2(1), 135–140.

Defraeye, T., Lambrecht, R., Tsige, A.A., Delele, M.A., Opara, U.L., Cronjé, P., Verboven, P., & Nicolaï, B.M. (2013). Forced-convective cooling of citrus fruit: package design, *Journal of Food Engineering*, 118(1), 8-18. doi:10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2013.03.026

Defraeye, T., Lambrecht, R., Delele, M.A., Tsige, A.A., Opara, U.L., Cronjé, P., Verboven, P., & Nicolaï, B.M. (2014). Forced-convective cooling of citrus fruit: cooling conditions and energy consumption in relation to package design, *Journal of Food Engineering*, 121, 118-127.
doi:10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2013.08.021

Dehghannya, J.M., Ngadi, M., & Vigneault, C. (2008). Simultaneous aerodynamic and thermal analysis during cooling of stacked spheres inside ventilated packages, *Chemical Engineering & Technology*, 31(11), 1651-1659. doi:10.1002/ceat.200800290

Dehghannya, J.M., Ngadi, M., & Vigneault, C. (2011). Mathematical modeling of airflow and heat transfer during forced convection cooling of produce considering various package vent areas, *Food Control*, 22(8), 1393-1399. doi:10.1016/j.foodcont.2011.02.019

Dehghannya, J.M., Ngadi, M., & Vigneault, C. (2012). Transport phenomena modelling during produce cooling for optimal package design: Thermal sensitivity analysis, *Biosystems Engineering*, 111(3), 315-324. doi:10.1016/j.biosystemseng.2012.01.001

Delele, M.A., Tijssens, E., Atalay, Y., Ho, Q., Ramon, H., Nicolaï, B.M., & Verboven, P. (2008). Combined discrete element and CFD modelling of airflow through random stacking of horticultural products in vented boxes, *Journal of Food Engineering*, 89(1), 33-41.
doi:10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2008.03.026

631

- 632 Delele, M.A, Ngcobo, M.E.K., Opara, U.L., & Meyer, C.J. (2013a). Investigating the Effects of Table
633 Grape Package Components and Stacking on Airflow, Heat and Mass Transfer Using 3-D CFD
634 Modelling. *Food and Bioprocess Technology*, 6(9), 2571-2585. doi:10.1007/s11947-012-0895-5
- 635 Delele, M.A, Ngcobo, M.E.K., Getahun, S.T., Chen, L., Mellmann, J., & Opara, U.L. (2013b).
636 Studying airflow and heat transfer characteristics of horticultural produce packaging system using 3-D
637 CFD model. Part I: Model development and validation. *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, 86, 536-
638 545. doi:10.1016/j.postharvbio.2013.08.014
- 639 Delele, M.A, Ngcobo, M.E.K., Getahun, S.T., Chen, L., Mellmann, J., & Opara, U.L. (2013c).
640 Studying airflow and heat transfer characteristics of a horticultural produce packaging system using 3-
641 D CFD model. Part II: Effect of package design. *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, 86, 546-555.
642 doi:10.1016/j.postharvbio.2013.08.015
- 643 DesignModeler. (2010). Canonsburg, PA: Ansys Inc.
- 644 East, A.R., Sabarez, H.T., Tanner, D.J., & Cleland, D.J. (2003). Validation of a Packaging Design
645 Tool: Case Study for Appple Packaging, *Proc. International Congress of Refrigeration*, Washington,
646 D.C
- 647 East, A.R., Jeffery, P.B., & Love, R.J. (2013) Investigating asymmetrical packaging as a technique to
648 reduce heterogeneity during pre-cooling of fresh produce, *Proc. 2nd IIR International Conference on*
649 *Sustainability and the Cold Chain*, Paris, France.
- 650 Ferrua, M.J., & Singh, R.P. (2009a). Modeling the forced-air cooling process of fresh strawberry
651 packages, Part I: Numerical model, *International Journal of Refrigeration*, 32(2), 335-348.
652 doi:10.1016/j.ijrefrig.2008.04.010
- 653 Ferrua, M.J., & Singh, R.P. (2009b). Modeling the forced-air cooling process of fresh strawberry
654 packages, Part II: Experimental validation of the flow model, *International Journal of Refrigeration*,
655 32(2), 349-358. doi:10.1016/j.ijrefrig.2008.04.009
- 656 Ferrua, M.J., & Singh, R.P. (2009c). Modeling the forced-air cooling process of fresh strawberry
657 packages, Part III: Experimental validation of the energy model, *International Journal of*
658 *Refrigeration*, 32(2), 359-368. doi:10.1016/j.ijrefrig.2008.04.011
- 659 Ferrua, M.J., & Singh, R.P. (2011). Improved airflow method and packaging system for forced-air
660 coolnig of strawberry packaging, *International Journal of Refrigeration*, 34(4), 1162-1173.
661 doi:10.1016/j.ijrefrig.2011.01.018
- 662 Fluent. (2010). Canonsburg, PA: Ansys Inc.
- 663 Fluent-Theory. (2010). Canonsburg, PA: Ansys Inc.
- 664 Franke, J., Hellsten, A., Schlünzen, H., & Carissimo, B. (2007) *Best practice guideline for CFD*
665 *simulation of flows in the urban environment. COST Action 732: Quality Assurance and Improvement*
666 *of Microscale Meteorological Models*. University of Hamburg, Hamburg, Germany.

667 Gowda, B.S., Narasimham, G.S.V.L., & Murthy, M.V.K. (1997). Forced-air precooling of spherical
668 foods in bulk: A parametric study. *International Journal of Heat and Fluid Flow*, 18(6), 613-624.
669 doi:10.1016/S0142-727X(97)00028-3

670 Holman, J.P. (2010). *Heat Transfer* (10th ed.). McGraw-Hill, New York, NY.

671 Jordan, R.B., Walton, E.F., Klages, K.U., & Seelye, R.J. (2000). Postharvest fruit density as an
672 indicator of dry matter and ripened soluble solids of kiwifruit, *Postharvest Biology and Technology*,
673 20(2), 163-173. doi:10.1016/S0925-5214(00)00125-3

674 Jordan, R.B., & Seelye, R.J. (2009) Relationship between taste perception, density and soluble solids
675 concentration in kiwifruit (*Actinidia deliciosa*), *New Zealand Journal of Crop and Horticultural*
676 *Science*, 37(4), 303-317. doi:10.1080/01140671.2009.9687585

677 Macrae, E. A., Bowen, J.H., & Margaret, G.H.S. (1989). Maturation of kiwifruit (*Actinidia deliciosa*
678 cv Hayward) from two orchards: Differences in composition of the tissue zones, *Journal of the*
679 *Science of Food and Agriculture*, 47(4), 401-416. doi:10.1002/jsfa.2740470403

680 McGlone, V.A., & Kawano, S. (1998). Firmness, dry-matter and soluble-solids assessment of
681 postharvest kiwifruit by NIR spectroscopy, *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, 13(2), 131-141.
682 doi:10.1016/S0925-5214(98)00007-6

683 Meshing. (2010). Canonsburg, PA: Ansys Inc.

684 Mowat, A., & Maguire, K. (2007). Canopy management and dry matter of 'Hayward' kiwifruit. *Acta*
685 *Hortic*, 753, 333-340. doi:10.17660/ActaHortic.2007.753.41

686 O'Sullivan, J.L., Ferrua, M., Love, R., Verboven, P., Nicolai, B.M., & East, A. (2012).
687 Mechanisms and performance of the forced-air cooling process of fruit packed in
688 polyethylene liners, *CIGR Section VII International Technical Symposium on Innovating the*
689 *Food Value Chain*, Stellenbosch, South Africa.

690 O'Sullivan, J.L., Ferrua, M.J., Love, R.J., Verboven, P., Nicolai, B.M., & East, A.R. (2013a)
691 Performance of the forced-air cooling process of fruit packed in polyethylene liners as a function of
692 pallet orientation, *Proc. 2nd IIR International Conference on Sustainability and the Cold Chain*, Paris,
693 France.

694 O'Sullivan, J.L., Ferrua, M.J., Love, R.J., Verboven, P., Nicolai, B.M., & East, A.R. (2014). Airflow
695 measurement techniques for the improvement of forced-air cooling, refrigeration and drying
696 operations, *Journal of Food Engineering*, 143, 90-101. doi:10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2014.06.041

697 Roache, P.J. (1997). Quantification of uncertainty in computational fluid dynamics. *Annual review of*
698 *Fluid Mechanics*, 29, 123-160. doi:10.146/annurev.fluid.29.1.123

699 Simson, S. P., & Straus, M.C. (2010). *Post-Harvest Technology of Horticulture Crops*. Oxford Book
700 Company, New Delhi, India

701 Sweat, V.E. (1994). Thermal properties of food. In M.A. Rao & S.S.H. Rizvi (Eds.), *Engineering*
702 *properties of foods* (2nd ed., pp. 99-138). Marcel Dekker, Inc., New York, NY.

703 Tanner, D.J. (1998). *Mathematical modelling for design of horticultural packaging* (Doctoral
704 dissertation, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand). Retrieved from
705 <http://hdl.handle.net/10179/2824>

706 Thompson, J., & Chen, Y. (1988). Comparative energy use of vacuum, hydro, and forced air coolers
 707 for fruits and vegetables. *ASHRAE Transactions*, 92, 1427-1433. Retrieved from
 708 <http://ucanr.edu/datastoreFiles/234-1044.PDF>

709 Thompson, J. (2004). Pre-Cooling and Storage Facilities. In USDA (Ed.), *USDA Agriculture*
 710 *Handbook 66: The Commercial Storage of Fruits, Vegetables, and Florist and Nursery Stocks* (pp. 1-
 711 10). USDA, Washington, DC.

712 Tsilingiris, P.T. (2008). Thermophysical and transport properties of humid air at temperature range
 713 between 0 and 100 °C, *Energy Conversion and Management*, 49(5), 1098-1110.
 714 doi:10.1016/j.enconman.2007.09.015

715 van der Sman, R.G.M. (2002). Prediction of airflow through a vented tray by the Darcy–Forchheimer
 716 equation. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 55(1), 49-57. doi:10.1016/S0260-8774(01)00241-2

717 Verboven, P., Hoang, M.L., & Nicolaï, B.M. (2003). Modelling turbulent air flow in cool rooms for
 718 horticultural products. *Acta Horti*, 599, 435-441. doi:10.17660/ActaHortic.2003.599.55

719 Versteeg, H.K., & Malalasekera, W. (1995). *An introduction to computational fluid dynamics: the*
 720 *finite volume method*. Essex, England: Longman Scientific & Technical.

721 Wang, M.Y., MacRae, E. Wohlers, M., & Marsh, K. (2011). Changes in volatile production and
 722 sensory quality of kiwifruit during fruit maturation in *Actinidia deliciosa* ‘Hayward’ and *A. chinensis*
 723 ‘Hort16A’, *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, 59(1) 16-24. doi:10.1016/j.postharvbio.2010.08.010

724 Wilton-Jones, S. (2012). Personal Communication, Zespri International Ltd, Mt Maunganui, New
 725 Zealand.

726

Highlights

- CFD model of the forced-air cooling process of polylined horticultural produce
- Validated model of a complete pallet layer (10 kiwifruit packages)
- Cooling mechanisms both inside and outside the polyliner modelled
- Cooling influenced by air temperature and distribution within pallet layer
- Little cooling rate benefit to increasing flowrate beyond $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$

Figures

Figure 1. (a) Modular bulk pack (MBP) for Hayward green kiwifruit and (b) palletised kiwifruit in MBPs numbered 1 – 10 and pallet layers “A” – “J”. Air is drawn through the 1.0 m face.

Figure 2. Half-pallet layout with wire mesh and insulated test duct attachments for the forced-air cooling system.

Figure 3. Cubic centred distribution and thermocouple location for kiwifruit in the MBPs

Figure 4. Image of (a) effective polyliner surface and kiwifruit bulk and (b) complete MBP.

Figure 5. Distribution of (a) air velocity (m s^{-1}) and (b) flowrate (%) between MBPs (total entering and exiting the pallet layer of 100 %) for a pressure drop of 200 Pa ($0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Arrows denotes net airflow transfer direction.

Figure 6. Average air temperature at the inlet vents (perpendicular to the incoming refrigerated air pulled through the pallet layer) for MBPs 1 – 7 at pressure drops of (a) 25 Pa, (b) 50 Pa, (c) 100 Pa, (d) 200 Pa, (e) 400 Pa and (d) 800 Pa.

Figure 7. (a) Location of vertical and horizontal cross-sectional area through the pallet layer. Temperature distribution ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) for (b) an isometric view of the kiwifruit temperature in each MBP, along the (c) vertical and (d) horizontal cross-sectional area, after 4.28 h (average pallet layer HCT) of forced air cooling for a pressure drop of 200 Pa ($0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$).

Figure 8. Comparison between predicted and experimental numerical average temperatures, during 14 h of forced-air cooling from an approximate initial product temperature of 20 °C, for (a) MBPs 1 - 4 at $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (b) MBPs 5 - 7 at $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (c) MBPs 1 - 4 at $0.51 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (d) MBPs 5 - 7 at $0.51 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (e) MBPs 1 - 4 at $0.71 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and (f) MBPs 5 - 7 at $0.71 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Standard error bars are shown for MBPs 1, 4, 5 and 7. Experimental and predicted air temperatures, averaged between the inlet vents of MBPs 1 and 5, are also shown.

Figure 9. Predicted and experimental cooling times for MBPs 1 – 7 for (a) HCT at $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (b) SECT at $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (c) HCT at $0.51 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (d) SECT at $0.51 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (e) HCT at $0.71 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and (f) SECT at $0.71 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Standard error bars are shown for each MBP.

Figure 1

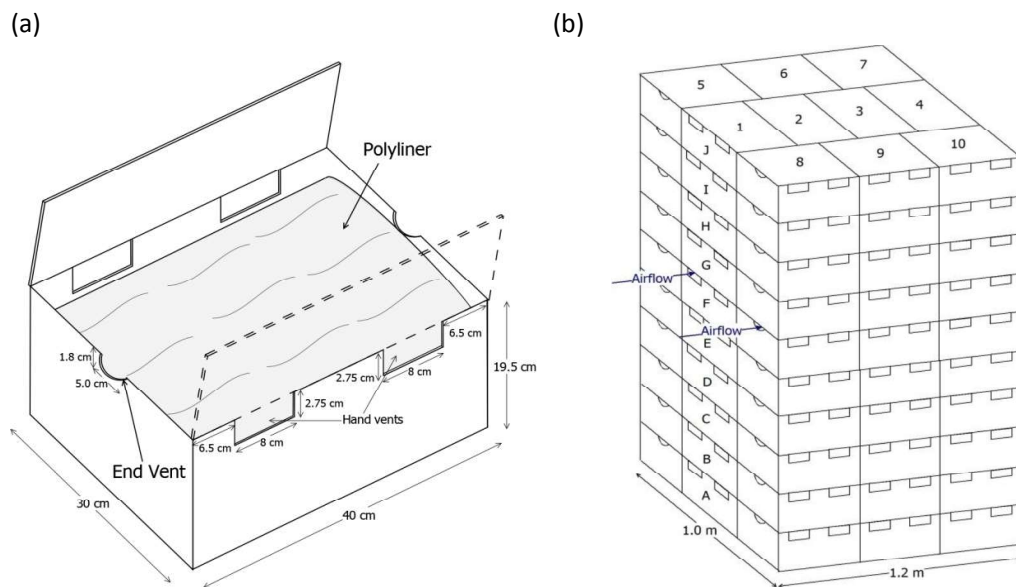


Figure 1. (a) Modular bulk pack (MBP) for Hayward green kiwifruit and (b) palletised kiwifruit in MBPs numbered 1 – 10 and pallet layers "A" – "J". Air is drawn through the 1.0 m face.

Figure 2

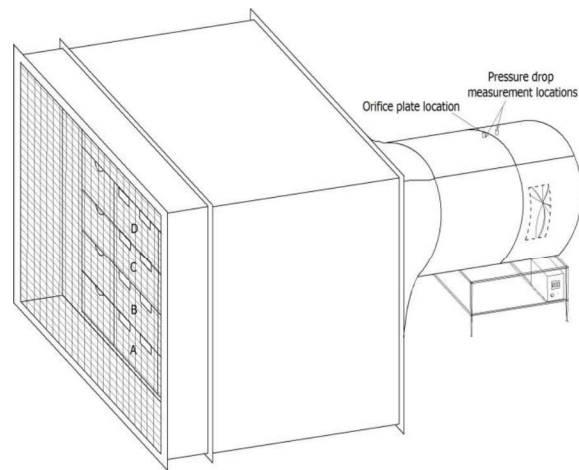


Figure 2. Half-pallet layout with wire mesh and insulated test duct attachments for the forced-air cooling system.

Figure 3

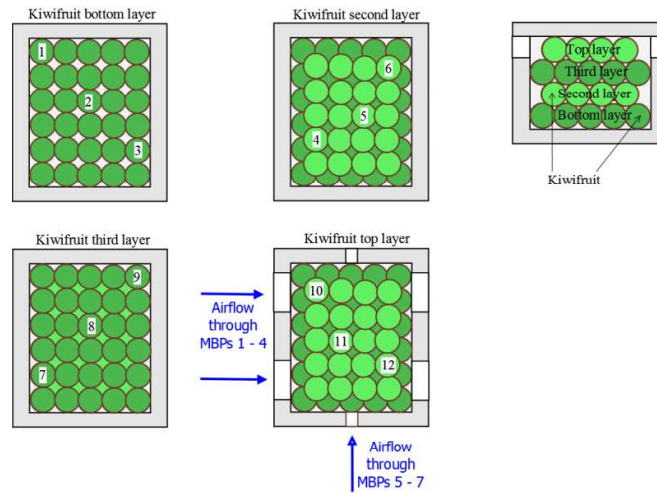


Figure 3. Cubic centred distribution and thermocouple location for kiwifruit in the MBPs

Figure 4

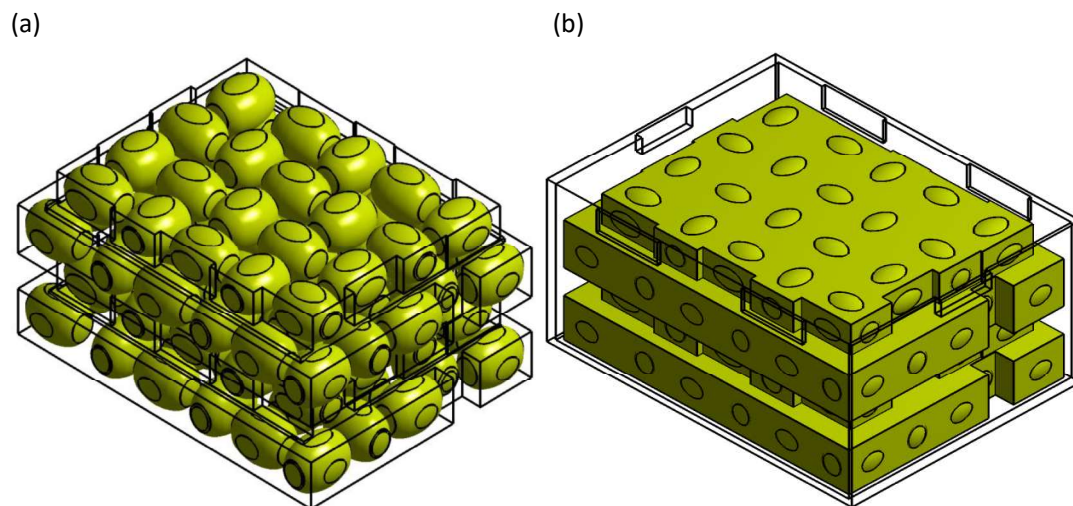


Figure 4. Image of (a) effective polyliner surface and kiwifruit bulk and (b) complete MBP.

Figure 5

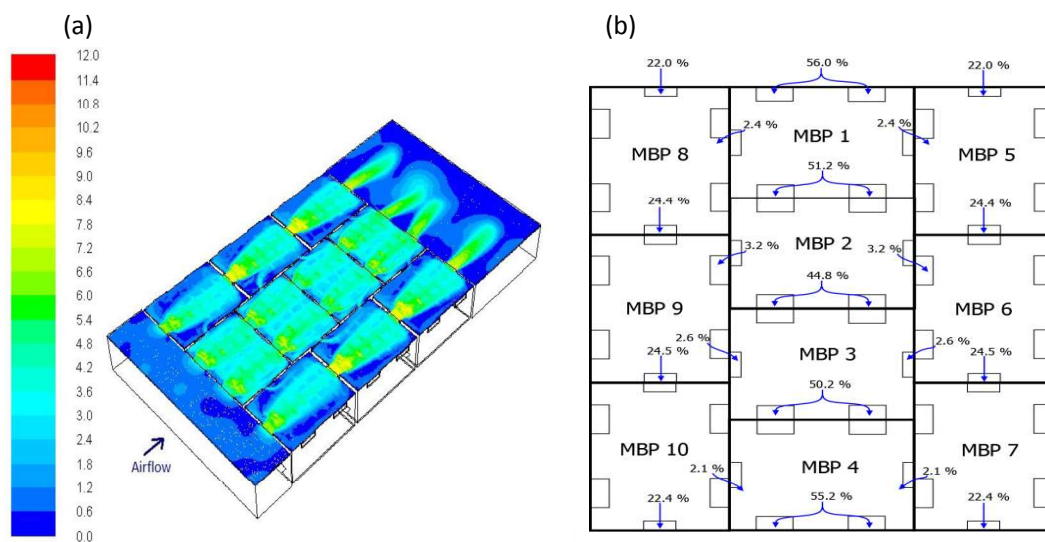


Figure 5. Distribution of (a) air velocity (m s^{-1}) and (b) flowrate (%) between MBPs (total entering and exiting the pallet layer of 100 %) for a pressure drop of 200 Pa ($0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Arrows denotes net airflow transfer direction.

Figure 6

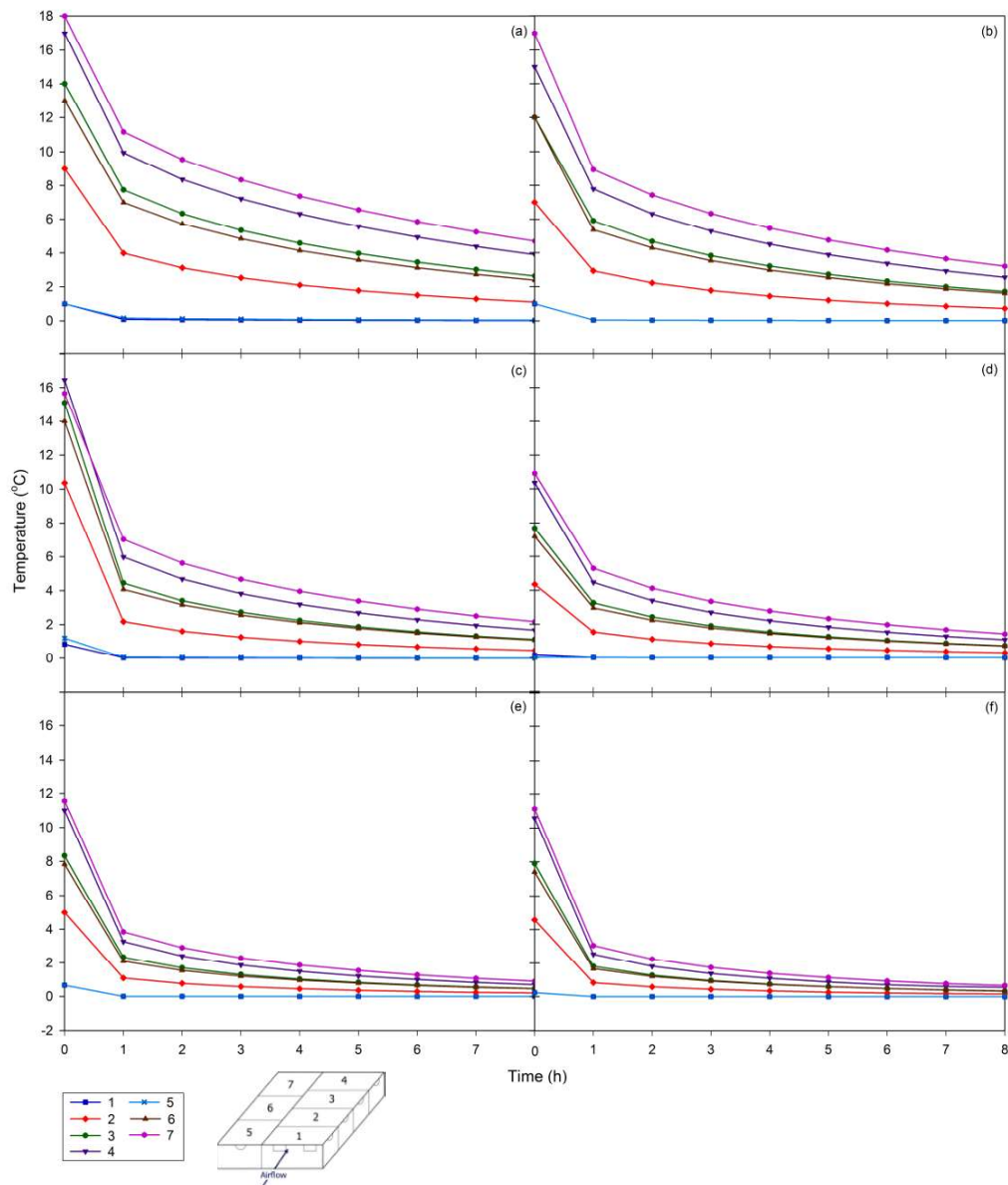


Figure 6. Average air temperature at the inlet vents (perpendicular to the incoming refrigerated air pulled through the pallet layer) for MBPs 1 – 7 at pressure drops of (a) 25 Pa, (b) 50 Pa, (c) 100 Pa, (d) 200 Pa, (e) 400 Pa and (d) 800 Pa.

Figure 7

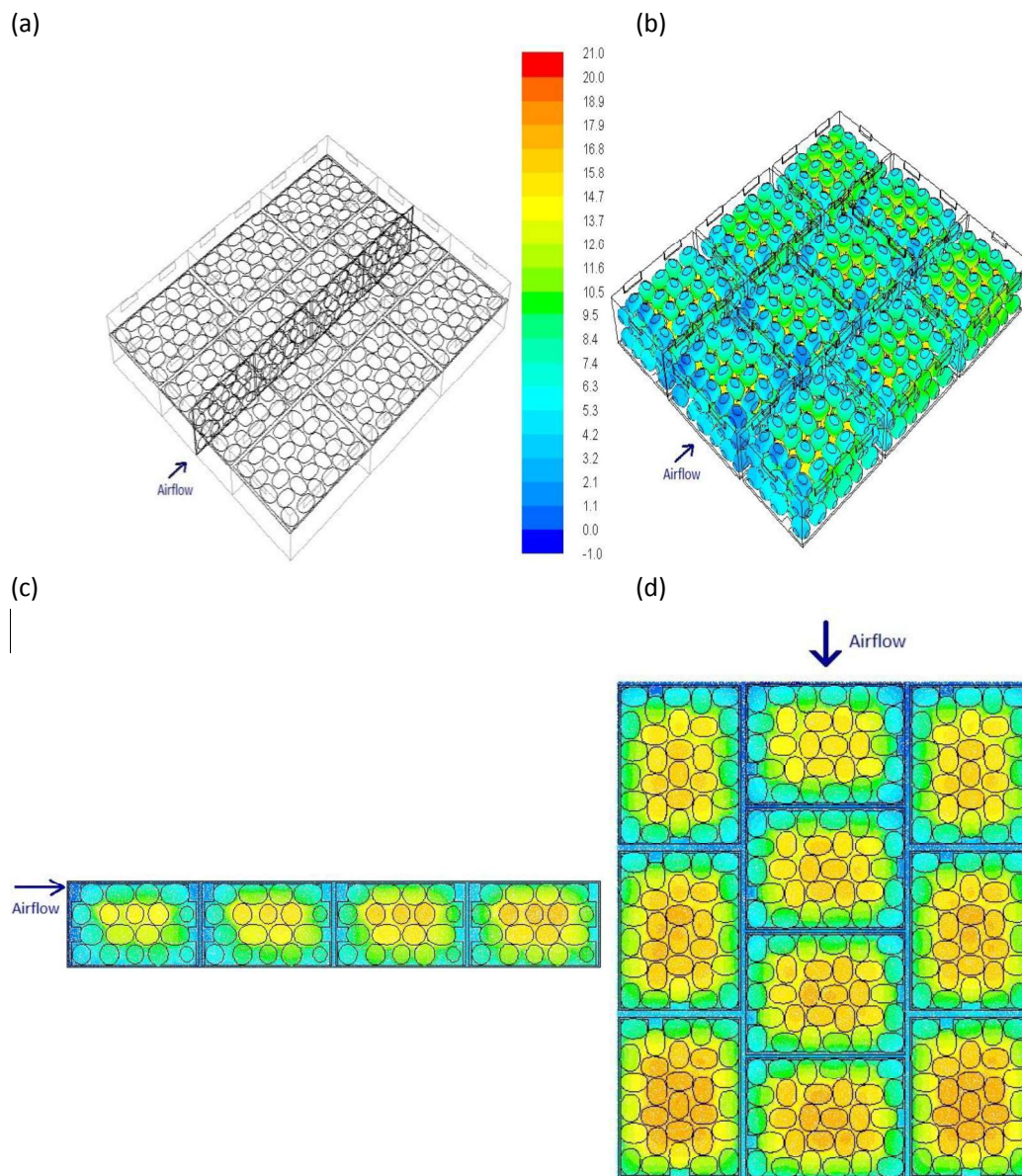


Figure 7. (a) Location of vertical and horizontal cross-sectional area through the pallet layer. Temperature distribution ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) for (b) an isometric view of the kiwifruit temperature in each MBP, along the (c) vertical and (d) horizontal cross-sectional area, after 4.28 h (average pallet layer HCT) of forced air cooling for a pressure drop of 200 Pa ($0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$).

Figure 8

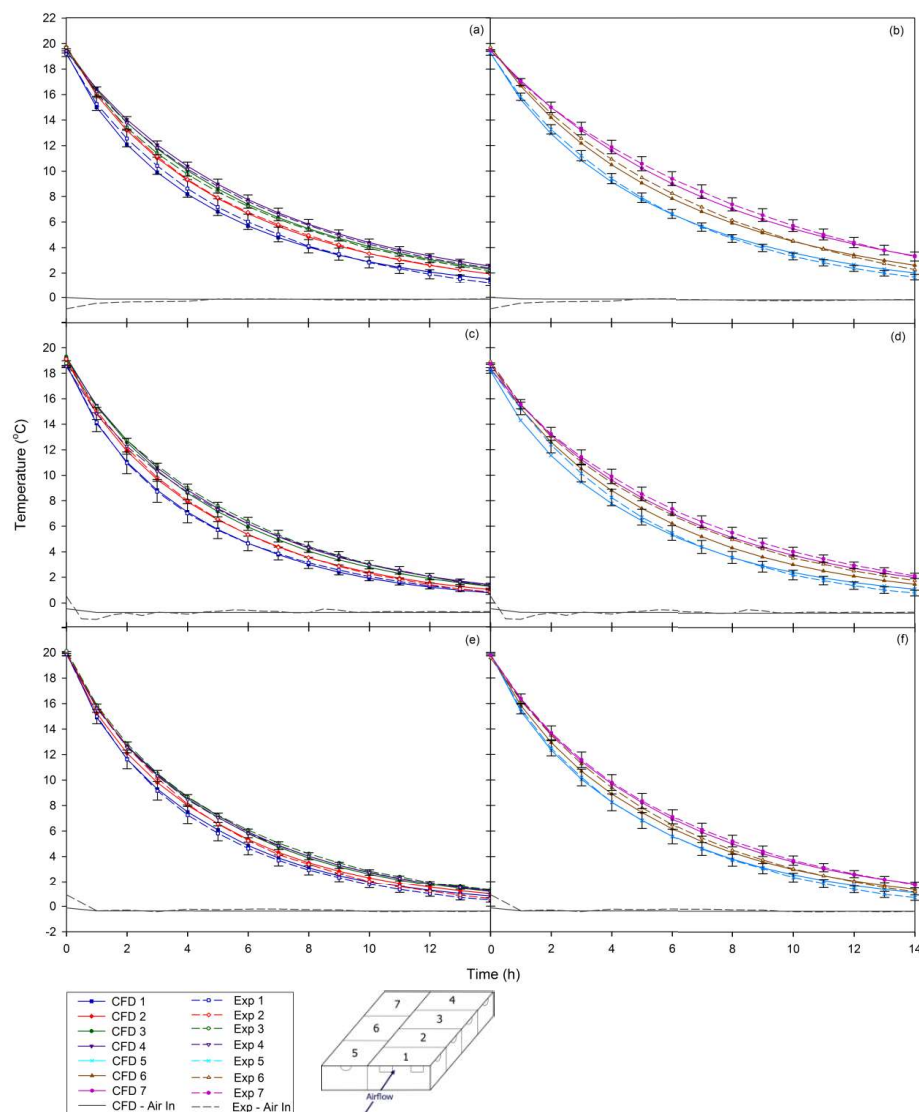


Figure 8. Comparison between predicted and experimental numerical average temperatures, during 14 h of forced-air cooling from an approximate initial product temperature of 20 °C, for (a) MBPs 1 - 4 at 0.34 L kg⁻¹ s⁻¹, (b) MBPs 5 - 7 at 0.34 L kg⁻¹ s⁻¹, (c) MBPs 1 - 4 at 0.51 L kg⁻¹ s⁻¹, (d) MBPs 5 - 7 at 0.51 L kg⁻¹ s⁻¹, (e) MBPs 1 - 4 at 0.71 L kg⁻¹ s⁻¹ and (f) MBPs 5 - 7 at 0.71 L kg⁻¹ s⁻¹. Standard error bars are shown for MBPs 1, 4, 5 and 7. Experimental and predicted air temperatures, averaged between the inlet vents of MBPs 1 and 5, are also shown.

Figure 9

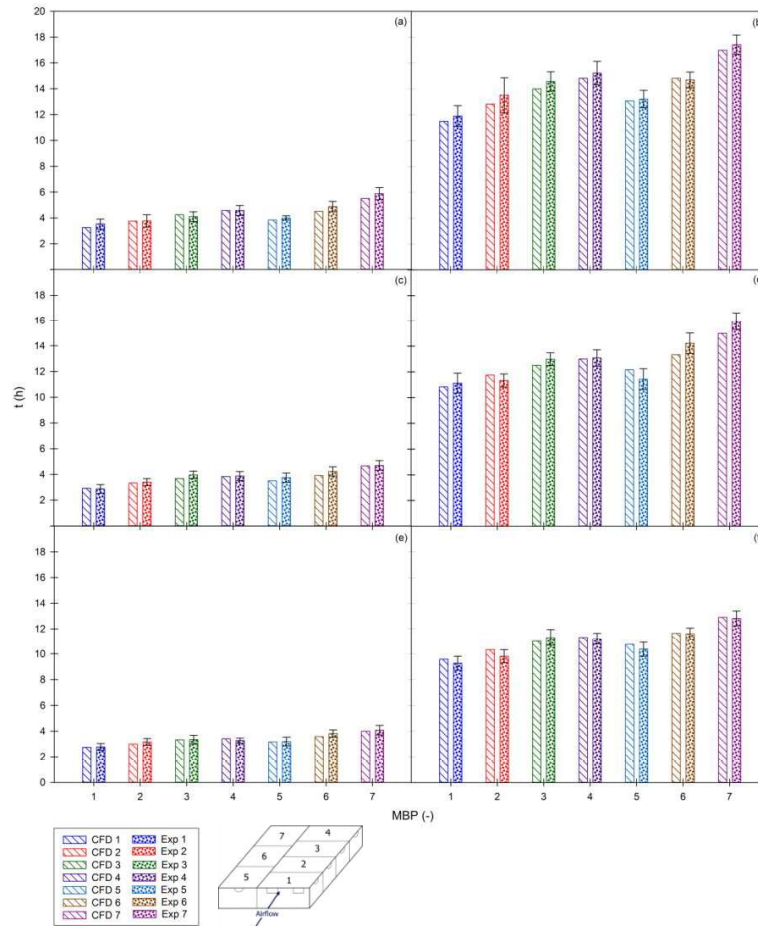


Figure 9. Predicted and experimental cooling times for MBPs 1 – 7 for (a) HCT at $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (b) SECT at $0.34 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (c) HCT at $0.51 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (d) SECT at $0.51 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (e) HCT at $0.71 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and (f) SECT at $0.71 \text{ L kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Standard error bars are shown for each MBP.

Nomenclature

English Symbols

C_p – specific heat at constant pressure, $\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$
 E – energy per unit mass, J kg^{-1}
 h – specific enthalpy, J kg^{-1}
 k – thermal conductivity, $\text{W m}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$
 m – mass, kg
 p – pressure, Pa
 P – power, W
 Q – volumetric flowrate, $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$
 t – time, s
 T – temperature, K
 v – velocity, m s^{-1}
 \vec{v} – overall velocity vector, m s^{-1}
 x, y, z – Cartesian coordinates, m
 Y – Fractional Unaccomplished Temperature Change, dimensionless

Greek Symbols

ε – turbulent dissipation rate, $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-3}$
 κ – turbulent kinetic energy, $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$
 ρ – density, kg m^{-3}

Subscripts

a – air
 avg – average
 i – initial
 t – turbulent
 eff – effective

Abbreviations

CFD – Computational Fluid Dynamics
FUTC – Fractional Unaccomplished Temperature Change, -
HCT – Half Cooling Time, h
MBP – Modular Bulk Pack
RH – Relative Humidity, %

SECT – Seven Eights Cooling Time, h

TCR – Temperature Control Room

VSD – Variable Speed Drive

Tables

Table 1. Material properties of the air and solid materials used in the numerical model.

Table 2. HCT, and the relative reduction in HCT, between the tested pressure drops/air flowrates for MBPs 1 – 7 in a pallet layer

Table 1

Table 1. Material properties of the air and solid materials used in the numerical model.

Properties	Material		
	Air (°C)	Kiwifruit	Cardboard
Density (kg m ⁻³)	1.293	1037	960
Specific heat capacity (J kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹)	1006	3713	2300
Thermal conductivity (W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹)	0.02343	0.542	0.48
Viscosity (kg m ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	1.73 x10 ⁻⁵	–	–
Expansion coefficient (K ⁻¹)	0.00367	–	–

Table 2

Table 2. HCT, and the relative reduction in HCT, between the tested pressure drops/air flowrates for MBPs 1 – 7 in a pallet layer

HCT (h)										
Δp (Pa)	Q (L kg ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	P (W)	MBP 1	MBP 2	MBP 3	MBP 4	MBP 5	MBP 6	MBP 7	Pallet layer _{avg}
25	0.12	3.0	4.35	5.62	7.05	8.12	5.38	7.47	10.05	6.85
50	0.18	9.0	3.9	4.85	5.72	6.42	4.75	6.13	7.87	5.68
100	0.25	25.0	3.54	4.22	4.88	5.33	4.23	5.27	6.47	4.92
200	0.34	68.0	3.23	3.72	4.18	4.47	3.87	4.57	5.42	4.28
400	0.50	200.0	2.98	3.33	3.63	3.82	3.53	3.98	4.6	3.77
800	0.69	552.0	2.78	3.05	3.28	3.4	3.27	3.62	4.07	3.42
Relative reduction in HCT (%) between pressure drop increases										
25	0.12	3.0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
50	0.18	9.0	10.3	13.7	18.9	20.9	11.7	17.9	21.7	17.1
100	0.25	25.0	9.2	13.0	14.7	17.0	10.9	14.0	17.8	13.4
200	0.34	68.0	8.8	11.8	14.3	16.1	8.5	13.3	16.2	13.0
400	0.50	200.0	7.7	10.5	13.2	14.5	8.8	12.9	15.1	11.9
800	0.70	552.0	6.7	8.4	9.6	11.0	7.4	9.0	11.5	9.3